Hierarchical Indexing for Retrieval-Augmented Opinion Summarization

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Abstract

We pr[opose](mailto:tom.hosking@ed.ac.uk) [a](mailto:tom.hosking@ed.ac.uk) [method](mailto:tom.hosking@ed.ac.uk) [for](mailto:tom.hosking@ed.ac.uk) [unsu](mailto:tom.hosking@ed.ac.uk)pervised abstractive opinion summarization, that combines the attributability and scalability of extractive approaches with the coherence and fluency of Large Language Models (LLMs). Our method, HIRO, learns an index structure that maps sentences to a path through a semantically organized discrete hierarchy. At inference time, we populate the index and use it to identify and retrieve clusters of sentences containing popular opinions from input reviews. Then, we use a pretrained LLM to generate a readable summary that is grounded in these extracted evidential clusters. The modularity of our approach allows us to evaluate its efficacy at each stage. We show that HIRO learns an encoding space that is more semantically structured than prior work, and generates summaries that are more representative of the opinions in the input reviews. Human evaluation confirms that HIRO generates significantly more coherent, detailed, and accurate summaries.

1 Introduction

Online review websites are a useful resource when choosing which hotel to visit or which product to buy, but it is impractical for a user to read hundreds of reviews. Automatic opinion summarization aims to aggregate a large and diverse set of customer reviews about a particular *entity* into a single, easy to read summary. A good summary should accurately reflect the balance of opinions in the input reviews, highlighting the most common or *popular* opinions, while omitting unnecessary details. A useful summary should also help *compare* between competing options, and include points that differentiate the current entity from others.

Early work on opinion summarization extracted reviewers' sentiment about specific features (Hu and Liu, 2004) or identified salient sentences based on centrality (Erkan and Radev, 2004), while more recent methods have proposed *ex[tractive](mailto:hao.tang@ed.ac.uk)* mo[dels that use learned f](mailto:mlap@inf.ed.ac.uk)eature spaces (Angelidis et al., 2021; Basu Roy Chowdhury et al., 2022). Prior work on *abstractive* opinion summarization has almost exclusively either required costly supervision (Bražinskas et al., 2021; [Cattan](#page-13-0) [et](#page-13-0) [al.,](#page-13-0) [202](#page-13-0)3[\)](#page-13-0) [or](#page-13-0) [ha](#page-13-0)[s](#page-13-1) [assumed](#page-13-1) [that](#page-13-1) [the](#page-13-1) [num](#page-13-1)[ber](#page-13-1) [of](#page-13-1) [input](#page-13-2) reviews is limited (Coavoux et al., 2019 ; Bražinskas et al., 2020 ; Amplayo et al., [2021a,b; Iso et al.,](#page-13-4) 2021)[.](#page-13-3) [This](#page-13-3) [defeats](#page-13-3) [the](#page-13-3) [poin](#page-13-3)t of a summary: a user could feasibly read 8 reviews in a reasonable period [of](#page-12-0) [time.](#page-13-5)[A](#page-13-5)[good](#page-13-5) [summ](#page-13-5)[arization](#page-13-6) [system](#page-13-6) [s](#page-13-6)h[ould](#page-13-6) [b](#page-13-6)e *scalable*, since [popula](#page-12-0)[r](#page-13-7) [products](#page-14-3) [online](#page-14-3) [m](#page-14-3)ay receive thousands of reviews. It should also be *attributable*, offering some evidence to justify its output. Paraphrasing Rashkin et al. (2023) , we say that a statement s is attributable to some evidence E , if a generic reader would agree that 'According to E , s is [true'. Finally,](#page-16-0) i[t shou](#page-16-0)ld generate summaries that are *coherent* and *faithful* to the input reviews.

Large Language Models (LLMs) have been shown to generate highly fluent summaries in the news domain (Bhaskar et al., 2023) but are a flawed solution because current instruction-tuned models are not attributable, and because their context windows limit the number of reviews they are able to [base](#page-13-8) [their](#page-13-8) [summaries](#page-13-8) on. Models with long context windows have been proposed (Beltagy et al., 2020; Gu et al., 2022) but these are not currently instruction-tuned, and it has been shown that LLMs are biased toward information [at the start and](#page-13-9) [end of](#page-13-9) the input ([Liu et](#page-14-4) al., 2023).

Our approach, H[ierarchica](#page-14-4)l Indexing for Retrieval-Augmented Opinion Summarization (HIRO), identifies informative sentences using hierarchical indexing and the[n](#page-15-0) [passes](#page-15-0) [the](#page-15-0) [s](#page-15-0)elected sentences as input to a LLM, similar to retrieval-augmented generation (RAG, Lewis et al., 2020). By separating the steps of content selection and generation, we can combine the attributability and scalability of the d[iscrete](#page-15-1) representation with the strong generative abilities of LLMs, leading both to a higher quality index and to more informative and coherent output summaries.

HIRO consists of three modules, allowing for increased control, flexibility and interpretability. The Hierarchical Indexer is an encoder that maps sentences from reviews to paths through a hierarchical discrete latent space. The Retriever uses the index to identify clusters of sentences for each entity that contain popular and informative opinions. These sentence clusters are passed to a Generator, a pretrained LLM, that generates coherent summaries that are grounded in the retrieved sentences.

Our contributions are as follows:

- We propose a method for learning an encoder that maps sentences to a path through a semantically structured discrete hierarchy.
- We show how to exploit this discrete hierarchy at inference time to identify clusters of related and prevalent sentences from input reviews.
- We introduce an automatic metric that measures whether generated summaries reflect the input reviews, while penalizing overly generic statements.
- Through extensive experiments on two English datasets from different product domains, we demonstrate that passing these retrieved sentences in a zero-shot manner to a pretrained LLM generates summaries that better reflect the distribution of opinions within the input reviews. Human evaluation shows that summaries generated by HIRO are significantly more coherent and accurate than prior work, and are preferred by annotators.

Our code and dataset splits are available at https://github.com/tomhosking/hiro.

2 Related Work

[Opinion](https://github.com/tomhosking/hiro) [Summarization](https://github.com/tomhosking/hiro) Prior approaches to generating summaries of reviews broadly fall into two categories. *Extractive* methods generate summaries by selecting representative sentences from input reviews to use as the summary (Erkan and Radev, 2004; Angelidis et al., 2021; Basu Roy Chowdhury et al., 2022). These types of approach

are scalable and inherently attributable, but result in summaries that are overly detailed and not coherent. *Abstractive* methods 'read' input reviews and generate novel language to use as the summary (Bražinskas et al., 2020; Iso et al., 2021). The resulting summaries are more fluent and coherent, but most prior abstractive methods are only able to consider a limited number of input reviews, whet[her](#page-13-6) [because](#page-13-6) [of](#page-13-6) [combina](#page-13-6)t[oric](#page-14-3) [complexit](#page-14-3)y or a maximum input length.

Hosking et al. (2023b) propose a hybrid method that represents sentences from reviews as paths through a learned discrete hierarchy, the[n generates output sente](#page-14-6)nces based on frequent paths through this hierarchy. While their method is abstractive as well as attributable and scalable, the highly compressed bottleneck leads to frequent hallucination and generic output with poor coherence.

Louis and Maynez (2023) use a Natural Language Inference (NLI) model to construct 'silver standard' summaries to use as training data for fine-tuning a pretrained language model (T5, Ra[ffel](#page-15-2) [et](#page-15-2) [al.,](#page-15-2) [2020\).](#page-15-2) [Howeve](#page-15-2)r, their approach is computationally very expensive, calculating over 1B pairwise entailment relations between sentences in the training data, before fine-tuning a [LLM.](#page-16-1) [By](#page-16-1) [contrast,](#page-16-1) HIRO uses a lightweight indexing encoder, combined with an off-the-shelf LLM that is prompted in a zero-shot manner.

Other work has used specialized training data to train supervised models (e.g., Zhao et al., 2022; Cattan et al., 2023); however, such data is expensive to collect and is not generally available in every language, domain, or sett[ing.](#page-17-0)

[Structured](#page-13-4) [Encod](#page-13-4)ings and Indexes Prior work has investigated how to learn representations of data with richer structure and interpretability. Vendrov et al. (2016) propose learning an embedding space where the ordering of two pairs of samples could be inferred from their relative positions, but their method requires supervision [of](#page-17-1) [the](#page-17-1) [correct](#page-17-1) [orderin](#page-17-1)g. Opper et al. (2023) describe a method for learning embeddings that explicitly include structural information, but they focus on representing structures, rather than on learning an ordering wit[hin](#page-15-3) [the](#page-15-3) [embedding](#page-15-3) [s](#page-15-3)pace itself. Li et al. (2023) learn a tree-based index for passage retrieval concurrently with the dense embedding space, showing that this leads to improved retrieval performance. However, they focus on retrieving passages relevant to a query, rather than aggregating opinions. Sarthi et al. (2024) use a pretrained embedding model to cluster related sentences then generate a summary using an LLM, and repeat this process iteratively to construct a tree-structured index [over](#page-16-2) [inputs.](#page-16-2) [Howev](#page-16-2)er, this process is expensive and must be repeated for each new set of inputs.

Content Selection The idea of first selecting relevant parts of an input before generating output has been well studied (Kedzie et al., 2018; Puduppully et al., 2019; Amplayo et al., 2021b; Narayan et al., 2023, *inter alia*), and has been shown to be very effective when used in conjunction with LLMs in the form o[f](#page-14-7) [retrieval-augmented](#page-14-7) [generation](#page-15-4) [\(RAG](#page-15-4), [Lewi](#page-15-4)s [et](#page-13-7) [al.,](#page-13-7) [2020\).](#page-13-7) [Xu](#page-13-7) [et](#page-13-7) [al](#page-13-7). [\(2023\)](#page-15-5) [found](#page-15-5) [that](#page-15-5) [retr](#page-15-5)ieval augmentation is beneficial even when using models that can accept long inputs. Wang et al. (2023) show that including an [additio](#page-17-2)nal filtering [or](#page-15-6) [selection](#page-15-6) [s](#page-15-6)t[ep](#page-15-6) [to](#page-15-6) [R](#page-15-6)[AG](#page-17-2) [is](#page-17-2) [bet](#page-17-2)ter than naively passing all retrieved documents as input.

Evalu[ation](#page-17-3) [of](#page-17-3) [Summa](#page-17-3)ries Automatic evaluation of generated summaries is extremely challenging. Prior work has shown that ROUGE (Lin, 2004) scores correlate poorly with human assessments of summary quality (Callison-Burch et al., 2006; Tay et al., 2019; Fabbri et al., 2021; Shen and Wan, 2023; Clark et al., 2023; Aharoni [et](#page-15-7) [al](#page-15-7).[,](#page-15-7) [202](#page-15-7)3). Some datasets are created automatically, with references that [are](#page-13-10) [not](#page-13-10) [directly](#page-13-10) [based](#page-13-10) [on](#page-13-11) [t](#page-13-11)[he](#page-16-3) [input](#page-16-3) [reviews](#page-16-3) (Bražinskas [et](#page-14-8) [al.](#page-14-8), [2021\).](#page-16-4)[Modern](#page-16-4) [summ](#page-16-4)[arization](#page-13-12) [system](#page-13-12) [ou](#page-13-12)[tputs](#page-12-1) [are](#page-12-1) [now](#page-12-1) [o](#page-12-1)ften preferred to human-written references (Goyal et al., 2022; Bhaskar et al., 2023).

SummaC (Laban et al., 2022) is a *[reference-free](#page-13-3)* [metri](#page-13-3)c that uses an NLI model to evaluate the degree of support between a summary and the input [documents,](#page-14-9) [but](#page-14-9) [it](#page-14-9) [overly](#page-13-8) [rewards](#page-13-8) [triv](#page-13-8)ial statements; usin[g](#page-15-8) [the](#page-15-8) [obvious](#page-15-8) [stat](#page-15-8)ement ''The hotel was a building'' as a summary for every entity achieves a near-perfect SummaC score of 99.9% on SPACE, a dataset of hotel reviews (Angelidis et al., 2021).

Malon (2023) proposes a metric that uses a NLI model to evaluate *prevalence*, i.e., how many input reviews contain supporting eviden[ce](#page-13-13) [for](#page-13-13) [each](#page-13-13) [senten](#page-13-13)[ce](#page-13-0) [in](#page-13-0) a summary, and explicitly penalizes trivial or [redun](#page-15-9)dant output. However, we found it has a similar failure mode to SummaC, with

Figure 1: HIRO uses three modules to generate summaries of customer reviews. First, we use our encoder to index all sentences from input review into a learned hierarchy. Then we identify paths within this index that occur frequently, and retrieve the corresponding clusters of sentences. Finally, we pass these clusters to an LLM to generate an output summary.

the statement ''The rooms are clean and comfortable'' achieving a prevalence score of 72% on SPACE. We propose a modification to prevalence in Section 6.2 that penalizes overly generic summaries.

3 Ov[erview](#page-7-0)

Let \mathcal{R}_e be a set of reviews about an entity $e \in \mathcal{E}$, where each review $\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_e$ is composed of a number of sentences **x**. The goal is to generate a textual summary that includes the most informative opinions from \mathcal{R}_e , while abstracting away the details specific to any one review.

HIRO generates summaries following a modular approach, depicted in Figure 1. We learn an index structure that maps each sentence **x** from the input reviews to a path $q_{1:D}$ through a discrete hierarchy. We choose a hierarchical representation so that sentences are g[rouped](#page-2-0) [at](#page-2-0) a useful level of abstraction; the upper levels of the hierarchy should partition sentences by topic, while the lowest levels should group together sentences with equivalent meaning.

At inference time, we encode all sentences from the reviews, then identify the paths or *subpaths* q1:^d within the index that are particularly *popular*, and retrieve the corresponding sentences. This selection process is query-free, instead relying on properties of the hierarchical index to determine the frequency of different opinions. By indexing sentences hierarchically according to their semantics, we can easily identify opinions or topics that occur frequently by simply counting their occurrence in the index.

Finally, we generate a summary by passing the retrieved clusters of sentences as input to a LLM. This *retrieval-augmented* usage of LLMs allows us to benefit from the fluency and coherence of LLMs, while retaining the attributability and scalability of extractive opinion summarization methods.

We now detail the three modules that constitute HIRO, evaluating each of them in turn to confirm their efficacy compared to previous methods.

4 Learning a Hierarchical Indexing

Our goal is to learn an encoding space where sentences with similar meanings are grouped together. The space should be *discretized* so that frequent opinions can be easily identified by counting the membership of each part of the index, and it should be *hierarchical* so that opinions may be aggregated at an appropriate level of granularity, rather than by details or phrasings specific to a particular review. Finally, the encoding space should be structured semantically, to enable accurate aggregation of opinions; sentences with equivalent meaning should clearly be indexed to the same point in the hierarchy, while sentences that are topically related but not equivalent should be grouped together at a higher level.

We base our encoder on Hercules (Hosking et al., 2023b). Hercules uses an encoder-decoder architecture with a discrete hierarchical bottleneck to generate summaries. It is trained as a denoising autoencoder, and therefore needs t[o learn a](#page-14-10) [repres](#page-14-10)[entatio](#page-14-6)n that is both compressed enough to enable aggregation, but also expressive enough for the decoder to be able to generate meaningful output. These factors are in direct competition, with the compressed bottleneck leading to output that is generic and contains hallucinations. By contrast, HIRO uses an external LLM as the 'decoder', allowing us to focus on learning a representation that is useful for identifying informative opinions.

4.1 Method

The HIRO encoder module maps a single sentence **x** to a path $q_{1:D}$ through a discrete hierarchy, using a technique based on residual vector quantization (Chen et al., 2010; Zeghidour et al., 2022; Hosking et al., 2023b).

First, we use a Transformer encoder followed [by attention pool](#page-13-14)[ing \(Vaswani et al., 2](#page-17-4)017; Liu and [Lapata,](#page-14-6) 2019) to map a sequence [of](#page-14-10) [tokens](#page-14-10) **x** [to](#page-14-10) [a](#page-14-10) single dense embedding $z \in \mathbb{R}^D$. Then, we decompose **z** int[o a path through a l](#page-16-5)atent discrete hie[rarchy](#page-15-11) $q_{1:D}$, where $q_d \in [1, K]$ [are](#page-15-10) [discrete](#page-15-10) ['cod](#page-15-10)es' at each level d. Briefly, we induce a distribution over codes at each level $p(q_d)$, parameterized by a softmax with scores s_d given by the Euclidean distance from learned codebook embeddings to the residual error between the input and the cumulative embedding from all previous levels,

$$
s_d(q) = -\left(\left[\mathbf{z} - \sum_{d'=1}^{d-1} \mathbf{C}_{d'}(q_{d'})\right] - \mathbf{C}_d(q)\right)^2,
$$
\n(1)

where $C_d \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times \mathbb{D}}$ is a codebook which maps each discrete code to a continuous embedding $C_d(q_d) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{D}}$. During training, we use the Gumbel reparameterization (Jang et al., 2017; Maddison et al., 2017; Sønderby et al., 2017) to sample from the distribution $p(q_d)$. During inference, we set $q_d = \arg \max s_d$.

Si[nce ou](#page-15-13)r [goal is to learn](#page-16-6) [a](#page-14-11) [repr](#page-16-6)[esent](#page-14-11)a[tion](#page-15-12) [where](#page-15-12) [seman](#page-15-12)tically similar sentences are grouped together, we use a training objective that explicitly induces this arrangement in encoding space. We train the encoder with a contrastive learning objective, bringing representations of semantically similar sentences (i.e., positive pairs) together, and pushing dissimilar ones apart.

For each sentence in the training data, we construct positive pairs of semantically related sentences x, x_+ as follows: given a random 'query' sentence **x** from the training data, we

Figure 2: An example of the process for constructing the positive pairs used to train our model. Given a query sentence, we first use tf-idf to identify possible candidates from the training data, keeping only those sentences with similarity over a specified threshold. Then we check for entailment using an NLI model, and use any sentences labelled as 'entailed' as positive targets.

identify possible candidate 'targets' based on tf-idf similarity; then, we check whether each candidate is entailed by the query using an NLI model (DeBERTa v3, trained on Debiased NLI; He et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2022), and use the sentences which are labelled as entailed as positive targets **x**+. An example is shown in Figure 2. We do not use any 'hard' negatives; instead, durin[g](#page-14-12) [training](#page-14-12) [we](#page-14-12) [ca](#page-14-12)l[culate](#page-17-5) [the](#page-17-5) [pairwise](#page-17-5) tf-idf similarity between all samples in a batch, and include only those samples with similarity belo[w a thresh](#page-4-0)old as negatives **X**−. We set this threshold to 0.3 based on validation set performance. This prevents 'false negatives' being wrongly forced apart, and allows sentences that are topically related but not strictly equivalent to remain in the same high-level grouping within the index.

We found that it was crucial to include sufficient exploration in the process of constructing positive pairs. The candidate sentences retrieved using tf-idf should be sufficiently similar that we are likely to find ones that are entailed, but not so similar that they only have minor lexical differences.

We use a modified version of the InfoNCE training objective (van den Oord et al., 2018) designed to bring the representations of a query

x closer to those of a positive target \mathbf{x}_{+} , while pushing them apart from negative samples **X**−,

$$
\mathcal{L} = -\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_+) \log f, \tag{2}
$$
\n
$$
f = \frac{\exp (s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_+))}{\exp (s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_+)) + \frac{\omega}{|\mathbf{x}_-|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_- \in \mathbf{X}_-} \exp (s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_-))},
$$

where $\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_+)$ is the tf-idf similarity between **x** and x_+ that weights the *confidence* of the positive pairs, inspired by MarginMSE (Hofstätter et al., 2021), and ω is a constant that controls the strength of the negative examples. The similarity function $s(\cdot, \cdot)$ is given by the mean dot [product between](#page-14-13) [the em](#page-14-13)bedding of all subpaths $q_{1:d}$ for $d \leq D$,

$$
s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} \max (\mathbf{C}(q_{1:d})^T \mathbf{C}(q'_{1:d}), 0),
$$
\n(3)

where $\mathbf{C}(q_{1:d}) = \sum_{d} \mathbf{C}_d(q_d)$ is the full embedding of path $q_{1:d}$. Intuitively, this brings together the representations of the positive pairs at each level in the hierarchy, while penalizing any overlap with the representations of negative examples.

The similarity is floored at zero, to prevent the model from being able to 'game' the loss by pushing negative examples further and further apart. Although the positive pairs are selected based on a directional entailment label, we do not exploit this directionality in our training objective.

We employ the techniques to induce a hierarchical encoding space proposed by Hosking et al. (2023b), including depth dropout, initialization decay, and norm loss. We additionally include the entropy of the distribution over codes, $-\sum_{d,q_d} \log (p(q_d))$, as an additional te[rm in the](#page-14-10) [object](#page-14-10)i[ve,](#page-14-6) [to](#page-14-6) [e](#page-14-6)ncourage exploration of the latent space during training.

4.2 Evaluation

We now evaluate whether the combination of discrete hierarchical encoding and contrastive objective leads to a more semantically distributed representation than previous methods.

Experimental Setup We experiment using SPACE (Angelidis et al., 2021), which consists of hotel reviews from TripAdvisor with 100 reviews per entity, as well as reference summaries created by annotators. W[e enco](#page-13-0)de all the review sentenc[es](#page-13-0) [from](#page-13-0) [the](#page-13-0) [SPAC](#page-13-0)E test set, then calculate

Figure 3: Cluster quality by depth, as measured by the difference between cluster purity and colocation for the SPACE test set, according to NLI (solid line) and tf-idf (dashed line) similarity measures. HIRO learns a higher quality encoding space than comparison methods.

both the *purity* (the mean intra-cluster similarity) and *colocation* (the mean inter-cluster similarity) for the clusters of sentences assigned to each subpath $q_{1:d}$ for $d \leq 4$. Finally, we take the difference between the purity and colocation as an overall measure of the quality of the representation space.

We compare to Hercules (Hosking et al., 2023b) and a baseline using recursive k-means over embeddings from a pretrained embeddings model (MiniLM, Reimers and Gurevych, 2019). We apply k-means to the embe[ddings,](#page-14-6) [then](#page-14-6) [calculate](#page-14-6) the residual errors between cluster centroids and embeddings, apply k-means to those errors, and repeat. All [methods](#page-16-7) [use](#page-16-7) [the](#page-16-7) [same](#page-16-7) [number](#page-16-7) [o](#page-16-7)f clusters at each level $(K = 12)$.

Model Configuration We use a 6 layer Transformer, with token embeddings initialized from BERT base (Devlin et al., 2019).¹ We set the codebook size $K = 12$, with the number of levels $D = 12$, based on validation set performance. Other hyperp[arameters are given in](#page-14-14) [A](#page-5-0)ppendix B.

HIRO learns a higher quality encoding space Figure 3 shows the overall quality (using both NLI and tf-idf measures of similarity), indica[ting](#page-18-0) that HIRO learns a more semantically distributed space at all levels of depth than comparison ap[proaches,](#page-5-1) according to both similarity measures. The separation between clusters increases with depth, confirming that the encoder learns a semantic hierarchy. We believe these results indicate that our method could potentially be used for more general purpose document retrieval (similar to Li et al., 2023), which is beyond the scope of this paper.

[5 Re](#page-15-14)[trievi](#page-15-15)ng Popular Opinions

Recall that a good summary should include opinions that occur repeatedly in the input reviews, as well as opinions that differentiate the current entity from others. In Section 4 we showed how the HIRO encoder maps a single sentence **x** to a path $q_{1:D}$. We now exploit the discrete, hierarchical nature of the representation space to index a large number of revi[ew](#page-3-0) [sentenc](#page-3-0)es, then identify informative sentences to use to generate a summary. We hypothesize that our content selection method leads to clusters that better represent the balance of opinions in the input reviews.

5.1 Method

For each review $\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_e$ about an entity $e \in \mathcal{E}$, we separately encode each sentence within the review to its path $q_{1:D}$, giving an indexed review **Q**(**R**).

Our content selection method identifies the parts of the hierarchy that are particularly popular for each entity, and extracts the corresponding clusters of sentences. This process is query-free; instead, we assign each subpath in the hierarchy $q_{1:d}$ a score based on its popularity within the indexed input reviews, and 'retrieve' all sentences that were mapped to the k highest-scoring subpaths. Our scoring function is inspired by tf-idf (Jones, 1972), which is designed to measure the importance of a particular term with respect to a set of baseline documents. We define the *term popularity* $tp(q_{1:d}, e)$ of a path as the fraction of i[ndexed](#page-14-15) [revie](#page-14-15)ws for entity e which contain the subpath $q_{1:d}$

$$
\text{tp}(q_{1:d}, e) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{R}_e|} \sum_{\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_e} \mathbb{I}(q_{1:d} \in \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{R})), \quad (4)
$$

where $\mathbb I$ is the indicator function. We define the *inverse baseline popularity* ibp as the reciprocal of the mean term popularity across *all entities* \mathcal{E} ,

$$
ibp(q_{1:d}) = \left(\frac{\alpha + \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} tp(q_{1:d}, e)}{\alpha + |\mathcal{E}|}\right)^{-1}, \quad (5)
$$

¹We experimented with using BERT as the encoder but found no significant improvement, since the discrete encoding is the main bottleneck in the model.

where the smoothing constant α allows us to balance between absolute and comparative popularity. The overall score is then

score
$$
(q_{1:d}, e) =
$$
tp $(q_{1:d}, e) \times$ ibp $(q_{1:d})$. (6)

Intuitively, the score represents the relative popularity within the current entity of a path q_{1d} compared to all entities in the dataset.

Our scoring scheme conveniently accounts for the fact that short paths are more common; $²$ short</sup> paths will also have a higher baseline popularity, leading to an overall score that is effectively normalized for the depth of the subpath.

After retrieving the clusters of sentenc[es](#page-6-0) corresponding to the top- k highest scoring subpaths, we filter out sentences with very low lexical similarity to other cluster members, and combine any clusters of sentences with high lexical overlap.

5.2 Evaluation

We evaluate whether our method successfully selects clusters of sentences containing informative opinions, using reviews from SPACE, as in Section 4.2. First, we measure the overlap between retrieved clusters and *oracle clusters* constructed by selecting sentences with high overlap to the reference summaries, 3 using the Adjusted Rand [Index](#page-4-1) [\(ARI](#page-4-1), Hubert and Arabie, 1985). Second, we evaluate the average *prevalence* (Malon, 2023) of sentences in retrieved clusters, which uses a NLI model (ALBER[T,](#page-6-1) trained on VitC; Lan et al., 2020; Schust[er](#page-14-16) [et](#page-14-16) [al.,](#page-14-16) [2021\)](#page-14-16) [to](#page-14-16) [evaluate](#page-14-16) [h](#page-14-16)ow [many](#page-15-9) input reviews support each retrieve[d](#page-15-9) [senten](#page-15-9)ce.

We compare HIRO to the clusters e[xtracted by](#page-15-16) [Hercu](#page-15-16)[les \(Hosking et al.,](#page-16-8) 2023b), and the oracle upper bound. As a baseline, we apply k -means to MiniLM embeddings (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), then extract the 25 sentences whose embeddings [are](#page-14-6) [closest](#page-14-6) [to](#page-14-6) [each](#page-14-6) [cent](#page-14-6)roid. For HIRO, we select the top $k = 8$ [subpaths for each entity,](#page-16-7) [and s](#page-16-7)et the smoothing constant $\alpha = 6$.

HIRO Selects Higher Prevalence Sentences Table 1 confirms that HIRO retrieves clusters that more closely match the oracle clusters, and contain opinions that are more prevalent in the

| System | Prevalence | A R I | | |
|---------------|-------------------|-------|--|--|
| k -means | 38.1 | 0.59 | | |
| Hercules | 32.3 | 0.50 | | |
| HIRO | 46.5 | 0.69 | | |
| (Oracle) | 48.1 | 0.73 | | |

Table 1: Evaluation of our cluster selection method, compared to a range of baseline approaches. HIRO selects clusters of sentences that more closely match the references and contain more prevalent opinions.

input reviews compared to prior work. The oracle ARI score is less than 1 because some sentences appear multiple times in different clusters.

6 Generating Coherent Summaries

Given the retrieved clusters of sentences for each entity, we want to generate a coherent and fluent textual summary. LLMs are well suited to this constrained rewriting task, and we leverage the zero-shot abilities of instruction-tuned models to map clusters of sentences to a readable summary.

6.1 Method

We generate a summary from the retrieved clusters in three ways, with varying trade-offs between coherence and attributability.

HIRO_{ext} We generate *extractive* summaries by selecting the centroid of each cluster; we compute all pairwise ROUGE-2 scores between sentences in each cluster, and choose the sentence with highest average similarity to other cluster members. This approach is inherently attributable, since each summary sentence is extracted verbatim from a review.

HIRO_{sent} We generate summaries one sentence at a time by passing the contents of a single cluster as input to an instruction-tuned LLM with a simple prompt that requests a single sentence that summarizes the main points. This leads to more fluent output that is likely to be attributable, since each output sentence has an associated cluster of evidential sentences used to generate it.

 $HIRO_{doc}$ We generate summaries as a single document, by passing the sentences from all retrieved clusters for an entity to the LLM in one go. This gives summaries that are more coherent and less redundant, since the LLM has control over

²The presence of a path $q_{1:D}$ for a review also implies the presence of all subpaths $q_{1:d}$, $d < D$.
³SPACE includes multiple reference summaries for each

entity; we randomly select one when determining the oracle clusters.

the whole summary. However, it is not possible to identify which cluster was used to generate each part of the summary, and therefore more difficult to determine the attributability of the output.

The ideal balance between coherence and the granularity of associated evidence is likely to vary by application.

Experimental Setup For the variants that require an LLM, we use Mistral 7B Instruct v0.2 to generate summaries from retrieved clusters. Mistral 7B was chosen based on its qualitative performance during model development, but we compare using alternative models in Section 6.4. The LLM is queried in a zero-shot manner, and the prompts used are given in Appendix C. We sample with a temperature of 0.7, and report the mean and standard deviation sco[res](#page-10-0) [based](#page-10-0) [on](#page-10-0) 3 samples.

6.2 Automatic Evaluation

Human evaluation is the gold standard (Section 6.3), but automatic metrics remain useful for model development. ROUGE scores are no longer reliable (Section 2), but we nonetheless report them for consistency with prior work. [Malon](#page-9-0) [\(2023](#page-9-0)) propose a *prevalence* metric, that uses an NLI model to determine how many input reviews c[ontain](#page-1-0) [sup](#page-1-0)porting evidence for each sentence in the summary, but this suffers [from](#page-15-9) [a](#page-15-9) [failure](#page-15-9) mode that overly rewards generic statements. A good summary should include common opinions, but should also help a user to differentiate between multiple entities.

To counteract this pathology, we propose a modified version of prevalence, that explicitly penalizes generic summaries. First, we define the *genericness* of a summary as the average number of summaries from *other entities* that support each sentence in a given summary, as measured by an NLI model (ALBERT, trained on VitC; Lan et al., 2020; Schuster et al., 2021). Then, we define the Specificity Adjusted Prevalence score (SAP) as

$$
SAP = \text{prevalence} - \alpha \text{ generations},\tag{7}
$$

where α is a constant that controls the balance between absolute prevalence and specificity. In practice, the ideal summary is unlikely to be entirely unique and a user may want to allow some degree of overlap between generated summaries. We report the prevalence and genericness, as well as the combined SAP with $\alpha = 0.5$.

Datasets We evaluate summary generation using SPACE (Section 4.2), which includes multiple reference summaries created by human annotators for each entity. We also include AmaSum $(Bražinskas et al., 2021)$, to evaluate summary generation [on](#page-4-1) [a](#page-4-1) [wide](#page-4-1) [ra](#page-4-1)nge of categories of Amazon products, with an average of 560 reviews per entity. The reference summaries were collected [from](#page-13-3) [professional](#page-13-3) r[eview](#page-13-3) websites, and therefore are not necessarily grounded in the input reviews. We use the same splits, based on four product categories, as released by Hosking et al. (2023b). Further dataset statistics are given in Appendix D.

Comparison Systems We select a random review from the inputs as a l[ower bound. We includ](#page-14-6)e an extractive oracle as an upper bou[nd, by select](#page-19-0)ing the input sentence with highest ROUGE-2 similarity to each reference sentence.⁴ For a **k-means** baseline, we run k -means on MiniLM sentence embeddings (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), then extract the nearest sentence to the cluster centroids. We set $k = 8$ to matc[h](#page-7-1) the average sentence length o[f the reference summaries.](#page-16-7) [Lexr](#page-16-7)ank (Erkan and Radev, 2004) is an unsupervised extractive method using graph-based centrality scoring of sentences. QT (Angelidis et al., 2021) uses vector quantization to map sentences [to](#page-14-2) [a](#page-14-2) [discrete](#page-14-2) [enc](#page-14-2)o[ding](#page-14-2) space, then generates extractive summaries by selecting representative sentences from clusters. SemAE [\(Basu](#page-13-13) [Roy](#page-13-13) [C](#page-13-13)[howd](#page-13-0)hury et al., 2022) is an extractive method that extends QT, relaxing the discretization and encoding sentences as mixtures of learned embeddings. CopyCat (Bražinskas et al., [2020\)](#page-13-1) [is an abstractive approac](#page-13-1)[h](#page-13-2) [that](#page-13-2) models sentences as observations of latent variables representing entity opinions, trained i[n a 'leave one ou](#page-13-6)t' manner. BiMeanVAE and COOP (Iso et al., [2021\)](#page-13-6) are abstractive methods that encode full reviews as continuous latent vectors using an autoencoder, and take the average (BiMeanVAE) or an optimized combination (CO[OP\)](#page-14-3) [of](#page-14-3) [review](#page-14-3) [en](#page-14-3)codings. We compare to a recent open weight instruction-tuned LLM, specifically Mistral Instruct v0.2 7B (Jiang et al., 2023). Since no training data is available, the LLM was prompted zero-shot

⁴When multiple references are available, we select one at random.

| | | SPACE | | | | | AmaSum (4 domains) | | | | |
|-------------|--------------------------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|--------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | System | $R-2 \uparrow$ | $R-L \uparrow$ | Prev. \uparrow | Gen. \downarrow | $SAP \uparrow$ | $R-2 \uparrow$ | $R-L$ \uparrow | Prev. \uparrow | Gen. \downarrow | $SAP \uparrow$ |
| Extractive | Rand. Review | 6.2 | 17.1 | 18.0 | 12.5 | 11.8 | 1.0 | 9.5 | 16.3 | 8.0 | 12.3 |
| | k -means | 9.5 | 19.8 | 27.9 | 25.0 | 15.4 | 2.3 | 12.0 | 14.9 | 11.4 | 9.2 |
| | LexRank | 5.9 | 16.4 | 18.2 | 4.4 | 16.0 | 2.7 | 12.2 | 9.0 | 3.0 | 7.5 |
| | QT | 10.3 | 21.5 | 24.9 | 23.3 | 13.3 | 1.5 | 11.4 | 10.9 | 7.3 | 7.3 |
| | SemAE | 11.1 | 23.5 | 29.2 | 17.1 | 20.6 | 1.6 | 11.3 | 8.7 | 4.1 | 6.7 |
| | Hercules _{ext} | 13.2 | 24.4 | 30.2 | 25.2 | 17.6 | 3.0 | 12.5 | 9.5 | 6.7 | 6.2 |
| | $HIRO_{ext}$ | 11.7 | 22.1 | 36.3 | 20.5 | 26.1 | 2.7 | 12.6 | 19.4 | 9.5 | 14.6 |
| Abstractive | CopyCat | 12.1 | 22.9 | 48.3 | 70.9 | 12.9 | 1.5 | 11.2 | 15.8 | 21.0 | 5.3 |
| | BiMeanVAE | 13.7 | 27.1 | 45.0 | 61.4 | 14.2 | 2.0 | 12.5 | 14.7 | 24.1 | 2.7 |
| | COOP | 14.2 | 27.2 | 46.1 | 63.2 | 14.5 | 2.8 | 14.1 | 18.8 | 30.3 | 3.7 |
| | Hercules _{abs} | 14.8 | 27.2 | 32.2 | 36.1 | 14.1 | 2.0 | 11.8 | 8.5 | 9.2 | 3.9 |
| | Zero-shot Mistral 7B | 5.3 ± 0.1 | 19.6 ± 0.4 | 41.3 ± 1.3 | 34.3 ± 3.3 | 24.2 ± 0.8 | $1.9 + 0.0$ | 12.6 ± 0.0 | 17.3 ± 0.2 | 17.6 ± 0.4 | 8.5 ± 0.2 |
| | $HIROsent+Mistral 7B$ | 4.5 ± 0.1 | 18.2 ± 0.0 | 36.2 ± 0.8 | 20.1 ± 0.5 | 26.2 ± 0.9 | 3.5 ± 0.0 | 14.1 ± 0.1 | 14.6 ± 0.3 | 6.9 ± 0.1 | 11.2 ± 0.3 |
| | $HIRO_{doc} + Mistral$ 7B | $7.0 + 0.2$ | 20.5 ± 0.3 | 44.0 ± 3.0 | 28.8 ± 2.1 | 29.6 ± 2.1 | 4.0 ± 0.0 | 15.1 ± 0.1 | 15.3 ± 0.1 | 9.4 ± 0.3 | 10.6 ± 0.1 |
| | (References) | | | 44.3 | 50.2 | 19.2 | | | 9.3 | 7.0 | 5.8 |
| | (Oracle) | 45.0 | 53.3 | 41.0 | 38.5 | 21.7 | 14.4 | 26.0 | 12.3 | 9.0 | 7.8 |

Table 2: Results for automatic evaluation of summary generation on the test splits. R-2 and R-L represent ROUGE-2/L F1 scores. Prev. refers to Prevalence, Gen. refers to Genericness, and SAP refers to Specificity-Adjusted Prevalence. ROUGE scores are no longer considered reliable (Callison-Burch et al., 2006; Tay et al., 2019; Fabbri et al., 2021), so we consider SAP to be our primary metric. The best scores for extractive and abstractive systems are shown in bold. Results for systems involving LLMs are based on 3 samples, with the mean and standard deviation shown. HIRO generates [summaries with](#page-13-10) [the b](#page-13-10)[est bal](#page-13-11)[ance between pr](#page-16-3)[evalent opinions an](#page-14-8)d specificity.

as per Appendix C, and sampled with temperature 0.7. We report the mean and standard deviation scores based on 3 samples.

Most of the abstractive methods are not scalable [and](#page-19-1) [have](#page-19-1) [up](#page-19-1)per limits on the number of input reviews. CopyCat and Mistral 7B have a maximum input sequence length, while COOP exhaustively searches over combinations of input reviews. We use 8 randomly selected reviews as input to CopyCat, COOP, and Mistral 7B.

HIRO Gives the Best Balance Between Prevalence and Specificity The results in Table 2 show that HIRO achieves the highest SAP scores across both datasets, indicating that it generates summaries with the best balance between absolute prevalence and specificity. While [CopyCat](#page-8-0) and COOP achieve the highest prevalence scores on SPACE and AmaSum respectively, they also display some of the highest genericness; qualitatively, the outputs are very similar to each other, with few specific details. We give example output in Tables 10 and 11.

References Are not the Upper Bound While the oracle summaries score highly in terms of

specificity-adjusted prevalence, some systems (including HIRO) outperform them. This indicates the difficulty with constructing reference summaries for entities with large numbers of reviews; it is not feasible for human annotators to reliably summarize such a large amount of information.

HIRO Is More Faithful to Selected Evidence To evaluate how faithful the generated summaries are to the retrieved sentence clusters or *evidence sets*, we use an NLI model to determine how many sentences in each cluster either entail or are entailed by the corresponding sentence in the output summary, and take the mean. Considering both forward and backward entailment in this manner accounts for the different levels of granularity between the inputs and summary (Zhang et al., 2024); input reviews are likely to be more specific than summary sentences, but concise summary sentences are likely to contain multi[ple assertions,](#page-17-6) e.g., ''The food was good *and* the rooms were [clean](#page-17-6)''. HIRO_{doc} does not align the evidence sets with each generated sentence, so we calculate the maximum support score over all sets for each summary sentence. Most abstractive systems are

Table 3: Results for automatic evaluation of the evidence supplied by attributable systems, showing the percentage of summary sentences that have support from at least one sentence in the evidence set (partial support) and from at least half the sentences in the evidence (majority support). HIRO generates summaries that have strong partial support from the associated evidence sets, with improved majority support compared to Hercules.

Figure 4: Distribution of selected subpaths by depth. A large fraction of the extracted clusters come from paths deeper than the top level.

not attributable, and so we only compare with Hercules. Table 3 shows the percentage of summary sentences that have support from at least *one* sentence in the evidence (partial support) and from at least *half* the sentences in the evidence (majority support). $HIRO_{doc}$ generates summaries that have strong partial support from the associated evidence sets, with improved majority support compared to Hercules despite also being significantly more detailed.

HIRO Makes Use of the Hierarchy We confirm that HIRO exploits the hierarchical nature of the representation space. Figure 4 shows the distribution of selected subpath depths for both datasets, indicating that HIRO takes advantage of the hierarchy and selects clusters deeper than the top level. This is particularl[y](#page-9-2) [true](#page-9-2) [for](#page-9-2) AmaSum, where there is a wider range of product types, causing the selection process to search deeper in the tree.

6.3 Human Evaluation

We conduct a human evaluation to verify that HIRO generates summaries that are coherent and accurately reflect the opinions in the input reviews. We recruit crowdworkers through Prolific, selected to be L1 English speakers from the US or UK with a minimum of 100 previously approved studies, compensated above the UK living wage at 12GBP/hr. Participants were allowed to rate at most 5 samples. We show annotators a set of 50 reviews (chosen based on pilot studies to balance annotator load with reliability), followed by two generated summaries. We solicit pairwise preferences (Louviere and Woodworth, 1990) along three dimensions, as well as an overall preference:

- Accuracy Which summary accurately refl[ects the balance of opinion in the re](#page-15-17)views?
- **Detail** Which summary includes more specific details?
- Coherence Which summary is easy to read and avoids contradictions?
- Overall Which summary do you think is better, overall?

The full instructions are reproduced in Appendix A. Ties (i.e., 'no difference') were allowed. We gather annotations for 10 entities each from the SPACE and AmaSum test sets, with 3 annotations for each pairwise combination of [system](#page-18-1) [output](#page-18-1)s, leading to a total of 900 pairwise ratings. The study was approved by the ethics committee, ref. #491139.

We compare $HIRO_{doc}$ to the top performing extractive and abstractive systems from Table 2, SemAE and Hercules_{abs}. HIRO_{doc} uses Mistral 7B as the generator, so we also compare to Mistral 7B *without* HIRO (i.e., prompted directly with reviews). Finally, we include a ra[ndom](#page-8-0) [re](#page-8-0)view as a lower bound, and the references as an upper bound.

Humans Prefer Summaries Generated by HIRO The results in Figure 5 show that HIRO_{doc} produces summaries that outperform comparison systems across all dimensions, producing summaries that coherently and accurately represent the opinions in t[he](#page-10-1) [inpu](#page-10-1)t [r](#page-10-1)eviews. Differences between HIRO_{doc} and other systems are significant in all cases (using a one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test, $p < 0.05$), except for coherence versus Mistral 7B. Both Mistral 7B

Figure 5: Overall results of our human evaluation based on the test splits of SPACE and AmaSum. Crowdworkers were asked for pairwise preferences between generated summaries in terms of their Accuracy, Detail, and Coherence, & Fluency, as well as an overall preference. HIRO generates more coherent and detailed summaries that better represent the opinions in the input reviews than comparison systems, and are preferred by human annotators.

Figure 6: Results of a human evaluation comparing the three variants of HIRO: extractive, sentence-wise and document. Overall, annotators prefer the coherence of the document approach, but the sentence-wise variant generates more detailed summaries that are also more attributable. The preferred tradeoff between coherence and attribution will vary depending on the application.

and $HIRO_{doc}$ outperform the reference summaries, supporting findings from prior work (Bhaskar et al., 2023; Hosking et al., 2023a).

Comparing HIRO Variants We run an additional human evaluation to evaluate the [tradeoff](#page-13-15) [betwe](#page-13-15)[en qu](#page-13-8)[ality and attribution be](#page-14-17)tween the three HIRO variants, collecting annotations for 5 entities from each dataset from 3 annotators each. Figure 6 shows that annotators prefer the output of $HIRO_{doc}$, although the sentence-wise variant generates more detailed summaries. The preferred tradeoff between attribution and coherence will [likely](#page-10-2) [var](#page-10-2)y depending on the application.

6.4 Analysis

Ablations Table 4 compares HIRO to zero-shot prompting, for a range of different LLM sizes from the Llama 2 Chat family of LLMs (Touvron et al., 2023). The same prompt template and hyperparameters were used as for Mistral 7B. Increased parameter count does lead to impro[ved SAP scores](#page-16-9) [for th](#page-16-9)e zero-shot approach on SPACE, but the largest 70B model scores worse on AmaSum than the 7B and 13B models. For all choices of LLM, HIRO leads to summaries with a better balance between prevalence and specificity than zero-shot prompting; HIRO is likely to lead to improvements for any choice of instruction-tuned LLM.

We also compare using HIRO to identify clusters against a k-means baseline, and Hercules (Hosking et al., 2023b). For both datasets, using clusters selected with HIRO leads to summaries that are much less generic, while remaining comparatively prevalent. This confirms the re[sults](#page-14-6) [in](#page-14-6) [Section](#page-14-6) [5.2,](#page-14-6) [ind](#page-14-6)icating that HIRO selects more informative clusters of sentences than the comparison methods.

Qualit[ative](#page-6-3) [Analy](#page-6-3)sis Table 5 shows output from Mistral 7B and HIRO as well as a reference summary, for The Grand Hotel Maryland from SPACE. While all generated summaries are fluent and convincing, Mistral [7B](#page-11-0) [makes](#page-11-0) reference to the opinion of a single user, which should not appear in a summary. It also describes positive praise about a member of staff, but a manual analysis shows that only 3 out of 5 reviews mentioning that individual are positive; the true sentiment is much more mixed than the summary indicates. These extrapolations highlight the problem with models that can only accept a limited number of reviews as input.

The examples of selected subpaths, sentence clusters and corresponding HIRO outputs in

Table 4: Automatic evaluations comparing HIRO to zero-shot summarization, using a range of different LLMs, for the test splits. We show the mean scores based on 3 samples, and best scores within each comparison are bolded. In all cases, HIRO improves on the zero-shot approach. We also compare HIRO to other cluster selection methods, finding that HIRO leads to summaries with a better balance between prevalance and specificity.

Table 5: Generated summaries for The Grand Hotel Maryland, from SPACE, comparing HIRO to zero-shot Mistral 7B. While all generated summaries are fluent and convincing, Mistral 7B makes reference to the opinion of a single user, and positive sentiment about a member of staff that is not supported by the full set of reviews. These extrapolations highlight the problem with models that can only accept a limited number of reviews as input.

Table 12 demonstrate the difficulty of evaluating attribution. The final cluster contains sentences that are all topically related, indicating that HIRO [has learn](#page-22-0)ed a successful clustering. While the sentences and corresponding HIRO_{sent} output are all broadly negative, it is not straightforward to determine whether the sentence ''Only one mirror in the room'' counts as direct evidence towards

HIRO provides more specific detail about user frustrations and the product itself. Mistral 7B is quite generic.

Mistral 7B mentions that desk staff were unfriendly, but this is not substantiated by the reviews, the majority of which are overwhelmingly positive. It's also a contradiction since earlier it says the staff were friendly.

Only HIRO references the high failure rate.

HIRO seems more accurate in its appraisal of the staff; the reviews were mixed. However Mistral 7B is slightly more informative, particularly in relation to location and proximity to amenities. I feel like HIRO sits on the fence quite a lot, whereas Mistral 7B attempts to summarize better.

I think HIRO is the better written and reflects a broader view on the reviews but References isn't bad it does cover PS4 and gaming which alot of reviews were using it for.

SemAE is incoherent. HIRO does an excellent job of summarising everything, balancing all perspectives.

Can tell HIRO is AI generated

HIRO is by far the better written and has a little more detail and reflects the reviews more than Herculesabs

Table 6: Comments from annotators for all pairs involving HIRO. Anonymized system labels have been replaced with the system names. The majority of comments are positive towards HIRO, although annotators comment that HIRO summaries may be less natural, or too conservative.

the output ''Rooms were small, loud, and in need of renovation [...]''. This partly explains the relatively low majority support scores in Table 3; some of the selected evidence may be consistent in topic and sentiment, but not directly entail the resulting output.

As well as collecting pairwise prefe[rences](#page-9-1) [in](#page-9-1) our human evaluation, we allowed annotators to leave qualitative comments. Table 6 shows all non-trivial comments from annotators for pairs including HIRO, with anonymized labels replaced by the true model names. The majority of comments are positive towards [HIRO,](#page-12-3) [hi](#page-12-3)ghlighting improved levels of detail and a better balance of the input reviews. However, some annotators note that HIRO summaries may be less natural or too conservative.

7 Conclusion

We propose HIRO, a modular method for unsupervised opinion summarization that uses a hierarchical index over sentences to select clusters of prevalent opinions. Our approach leverages pretrained Large Language Models to generate coherent and fluent summaries that are attributable and accurately reflect the popularity of opinions in the input reviews. Extensive experiments show that, as well as generating higher quality summaries, HIRO learns a more semantically distributed representation than competitive baselines. While we limit our experiments to opinion summarization, we believe that HIRO could be usefully applied to a wide range of other retrieval-augmented generation tasks.

Acknowledgments

We thank the action editor and anonymous reviewers for their constructive feedback. This work was supported in part by the UKRI Centre for Doctoral Training in Natural Language Processing, funded by the UKRI (grant EP/S022481/1) and the University of Edinburgh. Lapata acknowledges the support of the UK Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (grant EP/W002876/1).

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A Annotation Instructions

Instructions

In this task you will be presented with some reviews of a product/hotel, followed by two summaries produced by different automatic systems. Your task is to rate the system summaries based on the criteria listed below.

First, please skim read through the reviews, to try to get an overall idea of what opinions are mentioned frequently. Then, read the system summaries carefully, and rate each one according to the criteria.

Please read the criteria descriptions and system summaries carefully, and whenever is necessary re-read the summaries or reviews. You might want to use your browser's search function to help find parts of reviews that are relevant.

Criteria

Accuracy – Which system summary accurately reflects the balance of opinion in the input reviews? Statements in the summary should be backed up by multiple reviews.

Detail – Which system summary includes more specific details?

Coherence & Fluency – Which system

summary is easy to read and avoids contradictions?

Overall – Which system summary do you think is better, overall?

B Hyperparameters

Table 7: Hyperparameter values used for our experiments.

C LLM Prompts

Review: $[\ldots]$ $(x8)$ Write a summary in 70 words or less:

Prompt 1: Baseline LLMs (Mistral 7B and all Llama 2 models)

```
Here is a list of sentences
taken from reviews of the
{entity name}:
```
 $[\ldots]$

In no more than 10 words, write a single concise sentence that includes the main point:

Prompt 2: HIRO_{sent}

Here is a list of sentences taken from reviews of the entity name:

In no more than 60 words, write a concise summary that includes the main points:

Prompt 3: HIRO_{doc}

D Dataset Statistics

Table 8: Statistics for the training datasets.

Table 9: Statistics for the evaluation datasets.

E Example Outputs

See Table 10, Table 11, and Table 12.

[...]

Table 10: Examples of generated summaries for The Hotel Saint Christophe from SPACE. HIROdoc generates concise, informative and coherent summaries. Mistral 7B prompted directly with reviews also generates coherent summaries, but is limited to a small sample of reviews which do not necessarily reflect the overall balance of opinions. Previous abstractive systems, CopyCat, COOP and Hercules_{abs}, generate generic summaries that lack detail.

Table 11: Examples of generated summaries for the 'Bose QuietComfort 20' headphones, from AmaSum. Mistral 7B refers to the opinions of a single user, which is not appropriate for a summary of thousands of reviews.

Table 12: Examples of selected subpaths $q_{1:d}$, the corresponding evidential clusters, the resulting $HIRO_{sent}$ output sentences, and the overall $HIRO_{doc}$ summary for a single entity from SPACE. We show only three out of five input clusters, and a subset of all evidence sentences, due to space constraints.